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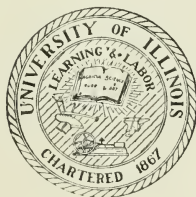
BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
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HOW TO MAKE COURSES OF STUDY IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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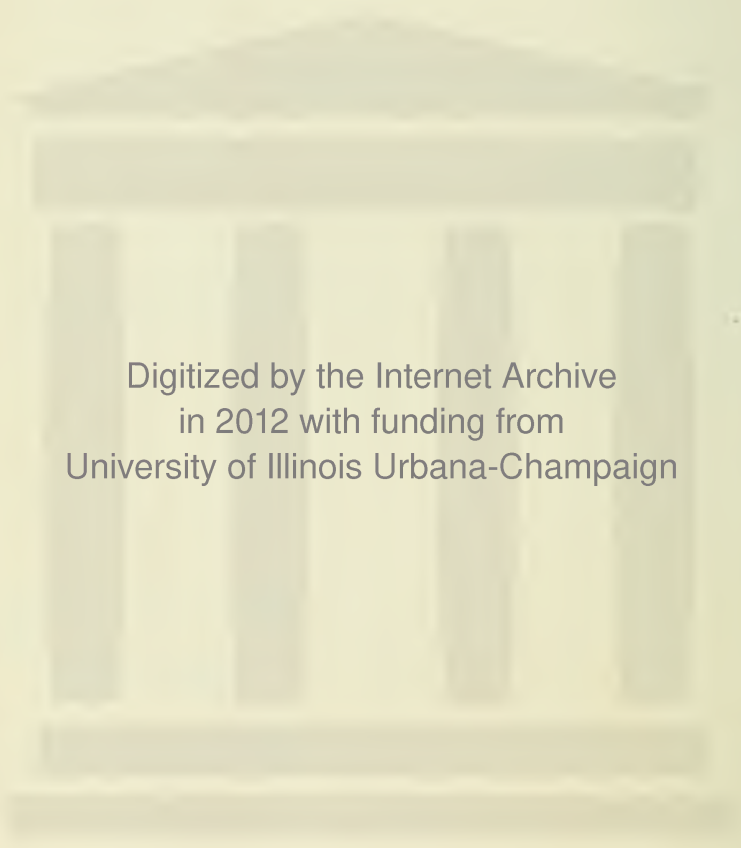
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HOW TO MAKE COURSES OF STUDY IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES¹

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Purpose of circular. The purpose of this circular is to describe a technique of preparing courses of study in the social studies and to give suggestions as to their content and organization for both the elementary and secondary school. "The social studies are understood to be those whose subject-matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups." They "differ from other studies by reason of their social content rather than in social aim; for the keynote of modern education is 'social efficiency,' and instruction in all subjects should contribute to this end."² The fields from which the subject-matter of the social studies is taken are history, government, economics, sociology, and geography. Within these general fields of study a great variety of school subjects is found. The following enumeration includes most of the courses which are commonly classified as social studies: civics (including community, modern, and vocational), economics (including modern and vocational), sociology (including modern social problems, problems of democracy, social science, general social science, social psychology, rural sociology, social ethics, modern problems, and ethics of citizenship), elementary law, current events, American, European, ancient, mediaeval, and modern history, and geography (including commercial and local).

No attempt is made in this circular to present courses of study in any of these subjects. The purpose is merely to tell how the work of making courses of study for such subjects may be carried on and what their characteristics should be when completed. A number of the better courses of study in the social studies are referred to as examples of good practices.

¹Details of the form of educational writing are not discussed in this circular. For such matters consult:

MONROE, WALTER S., and JOHNSTON, NELL BOMAR. "Reporting educational research." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 22, No. 38, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 25. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925. 63 p.

²DUNN, ARTHUR WILLIAM (compiled by). "The social studies in secondary education." U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 28. Washington, 1916, p. 9.

Relation of this circular to others on course-of-study making.³ This is the fourth of a series of circulars on course-of-study making. The first deals with the general problem of organizing for course-of-study making. The second and third give detailed directions for preparing courses of study in arithmetic and reading, respectively. This circular presents similar directions for preparing courses of study in the social studies.

Arithmetic and reading are "tool" subjects as contrasted with the social studies, which are essentially "content" subjects. The former are taught in the elementary grades almost exclusively, but the latter are taught in every grade of the elementary and secondary divisions of our school system. Because of these and other reasons it must be recognized that there are fundamental differences in the nature of the objectives, the methods of instruction, the types of learning exercises, and so forth, between arithmetic and reading on the one hand and the social studies on the other. Such distinctions make it desirable to have a separate circular dealing with the peculiarities of courses of study in the social studies.

Plan of circular. Three major topics are discussed in the following pages. First, in order to provide a proper background, the tendencies that are evident in the organization and teaching of the social studies in elementary and secondary schools are briefly described. Second, in order to make clear the more recent developments in course-of-study making, the function and plan of modern courses of study in general are considered. Third, there is a discussion of the nature of the content of courses of study in the social studies and the way in which this content should be formulated. At the end of the circular there is a bibliography made up of references that have been selected because of their pertinence to the work of those who make courses of study in the social studies. Throughout the circular reference is made to sources where points under discussion are more fully or somewhat differently developed and also where examples may be found of ways in which the ideas presented herein have been incorporated in courses of study.

³The three circulars previously written, in the order of their publication, are:

MONROE, WALTER S. "Making a course of study." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 2. Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 35. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925. 35 p.

HERRIOTT, M. E. "How to make a course of study in arithmetic." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 6, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 37. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925. 50 p.

HERRIOTT, M. E. "How to make a course of study in reading." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 18, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 42. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926. 37 p.

CHAPTER II

TENDENCIES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES⁴

Because of a variety of forces that are being brought to bear upon the social studies, numerous changes, many of which are fundamental, are occurring at a comparatively rapid rate. These changes are so widely distributed and exhibit definitely discernible common tendencies to such a degree that we are justified in dignifying them by the term "movement." This movement is closely linked up with some of the major tendencies in the general field of education. First, the trends in the social studies are greatly influenced by, and are mostly in accord with, the so-called scientific movement in education which has taken shape within recent years. Its chief characteristic may be said to be an effort to deal with the problems of education as objectively as possible. Second, tendencies in the social studies evidence the influence of the broader efforts to make education fit individuals more effectively for participation in life (out-of-school) activities. Third, a correlative of the second, the tendency is manifested in the social studies not only to make those things learned in school function in life situations but also to make them influence life conditions. Fourth, other tendencies of a somewhat less fundamental character, such as the problem and project methods and adaptation of courses to local conditions, are having their influence on the social studies.

The tendencies in the social studies may be grouped under three major divisions: (1) a shift in emphasis from certain types of outcomes to other types, (2) changes in methods of determining outcomes, de-

⁴No attempt is made to give a complete résumé of past developments in the organization and teaching of the social studies, but rather the purpose is to indicate the more significant tendencies that are evident today. For more elaborate discussions, see:

DAWSON, EDGAR. "The social studies in civic education." U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1923, No. 23. Washington, 1923. 16 p.

RUGG, EARLE. "How the current courses in history, geography, and civics came to be what they are." Twenty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1923, p. 48-75.

SHIELS, ALBERT. "The social studies in development," Teachers College Record, 23:126-45, March, 1922.

For the status of the social studies in high schools, see:

MONROE, WALTER S., and FOSTER, I. O. "The status of the social sciences in the high schools of the North Central Association." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 20, No. 18, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 13. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1922. 38 p.

sirable pupil experiences, and directive procedures, and (3) changes in pupil experiences, and stimulative and directive procedures.⁵ Each of these is elaborated upon in the following pages.

1. Types of outcomes. Formal education is primarily concerned with engendering controls of conduct by means of consciously directed experiences. The outcomes of learning may be classified as (1) specific habits, (2) knowledge and (3) general patterns of conduct.⁶ Specific habits are "fixed" controls, knowledge outcomes are "adaptive" controls, and general patterns of conduct partake of the nature of both "fixed" and "adaptive" controls of conduct. These distinctions are developed somewhat in the following paragraphs.

Specific habits. "A specific habit is an acquired control of conduct which results in unvarying response to a given stimulus."⁷ Thus, one who has appropriate specific habits, mostly fixed associations in the social studies, is able to answer automatically such questions as: When was the battle of Gettysburg fought? Where? Who were the opposing generals? Which side won? What famous speech was made later on this battle field? Who is the present Chief Justice of the United States

⁵The term "pupil experiences" is used in this circular to include the total activity of pupils in doing learning exercises or in realizing their own purposes. The learning exercises that are assigned determine to a certain extent the differences in pupil experience, as for instance, "doing" exercises as opposed to "reading" exercises. In the main, direct experiences are had in the former and indirect or vicarious experiences in the latter. However, in learning exercises which involve reading as the chief activity, differences in experience are frequently determined not so much by the learning exercise assigned as by the content of the material read.

The term "directive procedures" is used in preference to teaching technique or method, because it lacks some of the limiting connotations of the latter terms and in addition places the emphasis upon the teacher's function of directing or guiding the learner. "Directive procedures" include all those things which teachers do in directing or guiding the learner, such as formulating learning exercises, giving directions for work, evaluating pupil achievement, diagnosing difficulties, giving remedial instruction, and so forth.

⁶For other discussions of the nature of these classes of controls of conduct see:

BAGLEY, WILLIAM C. *Educational Values*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1911, p. 14-77.

BAGLEY, WILLIAM C., and KEITH, JOHN A. H. *An Introduction to Teaching*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924, p. 210-61.

MONROE, WALTER S. "Teachers' Objectives." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 39, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 45. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926, p. 4-6.

MONROE, WALTER S. "The teacher's responsibility for devising learning exercises in arithmetic." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 41, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 31, 1926, p. 7-25.

REAGAN, GEORGE WILLIAM. "Principles relating to the engendering of specific habits." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 5, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 36. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925, p. 3.

Supreme Court? What proportion of the population of the United States is urban? All of the responses inferred by these questions are of the type commonly described as "memorized facts." Most of the specific habits of the social studies are of this nature as contrasted with the motor responses of typewriting, handwriting, manual training, and the oral phases of foreign languages.⁸

From this description, it is evident that specific habits of either the motor or fixed-association type are "fixed" controls inasmuch as they function in a definite way to given stimuli and are not applicable to varying stimuli.⁹

Knowledge. Knowledge outcomes ("ideas, concepts, and meanings") consist of "conscious 'controls' which may serve to guide conduct when one faces situations for which a mechanized habit-response has not been developed."¹⁰ Included in this category are ideas, perceptual meanings, concepts, principles, hypotheses, laws, and similar products of experience and thought. The possession of such controls of conduct implies the ability to use them. Hence, in describing knowledge one may include the technique of generalizing, of forming concepts, and of thinking reflectively, that is, of dealing with knowledge. Thus, knowledge in the field of the social studies includes such as the following: knowing the meaning of such terms as democracy, institution, and bureaucracy; understanding the law of supply and demand, the principles underlying freedom of speech, and the reasons why certain types of industrial development occur where they do; ability to formulate generalizations from adequate and appropriate data; ability to construct clear ideas of things about which one reads or hears; ability to follow and compre-

⁸The term "skills" is also applied to fixed controls of conduct, but it generally designates groups of specific habits, usually of the motor-response type. Skills, in this sense, as outcomes of instruction in the social studies are negligible compared with memorized facts, although they enter to a limited extent into (or at least are involved in) such activities as map making.

⁹This does not mean that the same response may not be associated with several stimuli. It simply means that if such is the case, the response must be associated with each of the stimuli individually, that a given response will not result unvaryingly from a given stimulus except as it has been definitely associated with that stimulus.

¹⁰BAGLEY, WILLIAM C., and KEITH, JOHN A. H. Op. cit., p. 241.

Care should be taken to differentiate clearly the type of knowledge designated here from the popular conception which includes fixed associations under the term "knowledge," that is, what is generally thought of as "information." Examples of this type of so-called knowledge are: knowing that two plus two equal four, that the Declaration of Independence was signed July 4, 1776, and that the Battle of the Argonne was an important battle of the World War. It is in this popular sense that the term "knowledge" is used by Herbert Hoover in the phrase, "knowledge, however exact, is secondary to a trained mind." (School Life, 11:p. 4 of cover, April, 1926.)

hend the thinking of another; and ability to "manufacture" responses to new situations such as those presented by thought questions like: Why did not the North attempt in so far as possible to preserve intact the institutions of the South after the Civil War? or, What is the relation between inventions and progress in the United States?

This discussion of the nature of the controls of conduct classed as knowledge outcomes makes evident their "adaptive" nature. Such controls function in a great variety of situations in contrast to the "given stimulus" necessary to the functioning of a specific habit.

General patterns of conduct. General patterns of conduct include ideals, attitudes, interests, tastes, appreciations, perspectives, prejudices, and similar controls of conduct, the three major classes being ideals, attitudes, and interests and tastes. General patterns of conduct are characterized by the feeling of worth which they embody, although there may or may not be a reasoned acceptance of the pattern.

Ideals are highly emotionalized. Many of them function as ends or purposes and frequently are referred to as "emotionalized standards of conduct." Ideals of service to others, of liberty, and of patriotism may be engendered, at least in part, by the social studies. When the ideal of service to others has been engendered, the pupil will have in addition to an idea of what it means to be of service to others a feeling of its worth, an impelling desire which will exert a directive influence over his conduct toward that end.

Attitudes determine the manner in which situations are interpreted rather than the end of conduct as do ideals. Some attitudes, such as prejudices, may appear to be even more highly emotionalized than many ideals, and other attitudes, such as mental sets, points of view, and perspectives, color reactions to situations but contain little of the emotional element. Upton and Chassell¹¹ have described in part the behavior of one who has the attitude of loyalty in the elementary school in the following terms:

1. Respects those in authority.
2. Takes pride in his group and in the school, and tries to foster the right kind of spirit.
3. Expresses loyalty by removing his hat when the flag is presented or when the national anthem is sung.
4. Honors those who have rendered distinguished service.

¹¹UPTON, SIEGFRIED MAIA, and CHASSELL, CLARA FRANCES. "A scale for measuring the importance of habits of good citizenship." *Teachers College Bulletin*, Twelfth Series, No. 9. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, January 1, 1921, p. 40. (Reprinted from *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 20, January, 1919.)

Interests and tastes are more closely related to attitudes than to ideals in that they also determine the manner in which situations are interpreted. For example, the behavior of one who has an interest in biography may be described in part by the following:

1. The mention in his presence of a biographical work readily attracts his attention.
2. He keeps informed on new publications of biography.
3. He reads biographical accounts as part of his leisure reading.

From the preceding discussion, it is evident that general patterns of conduct partake a little of the nature of "fixed" controls of conduct and a little of the "adaptive" controls. They are applicable to a multitude of situations, yet they specify within limits what the nature of the response will be. Thus, one who is "radical" in his attitude reacts to most situations in a characteristic way which is easily differentiated from the reaction characteristic of one who is "conservative" in his attitude.

Summary. The preceding paragraphs may be appropriately summarized by the following outline of objectives.¹²

- I. Fixed Controls of conduct (specific habits)
 - A. Motor skills
 - B. Fixed associations
- II. Adaptive controls of conduct (knowledge)
 - A. Perceptual or relatively concrete meanings
 - B. Generalizations
 1. Concepts
 2. Principles
 - C. Techniques of dealing with knowledge¹³
- III. General patterns of conduct (generalized controls)
 - A. Ideals
 - B. Attitudes
 - C. Interests and tastes

Ultimate and immediate objectives. From another point of view, objectives may be classified as ultimate and immediate on the basis of their remoteness and proximity to the learner's activity, and as general and specific on the basis of their explicitness of description of the ends

¹²Taken in the main from:

MONROE, WALTER S. "Teachers' objectives." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 39, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 45. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926, p. 9.

¹³The writer is aware that acceptance of this idea involves acceptance of certain of the more traditional aspects of the theory of formal discipline. However, the position that there are such techniques seems highly defensible.

to be attained. In the content subjects, such as the social studies, it is particularly helpful to view the objectives as ultimate and immediate, recognizing that there exist intermediate degrees between the extremes of remoteness and nearness to the learner's activity.

The most immediate objectives are often spoken of as "lesson aims," which generally incorporate the idea of completing a task. This idea is prominent in assignments of the "take-pages-so-and-so" type. A more typical example may be taken from the plan of a lesson in American history. The aim was stated thus: "To show how the problem of Reconstruction was attacked and the part that political rivalry played in its early stages of solution."¹⁴ Completion of the task designated is an objective to be attained, but in turn it becomes only a means to a slightly more removed objective, the acquisition of an ability. For instance, completion of this task may contribute in part to engendering the fixed associations which will enable the possessor to make a proper and adequate response to the question: What was Congress' plan of Reconstruction? It may contribute in part to engendering the knowledge needed to solve the problem: How might valuable use have been made of the social resources of the South in solving the problems of Reconstruction? Or, realization of this lesson aim may contribute to engendering certain general patterns of conduct such as the attitude of fair-mindedness toward political issues. None of these abilities is as close to the learner's activity as is completion of the task stipulated in the lesson aim, yet each of them, relatively speaking, is an immediate objective.¹⁵

Two levels of immediate objectives are thus identified: first, the accomplishment of tasks, and second, the attainment of abilities. However, any enumeration of such tasks and abilities will contain many variations in degree of nearness to the learner's activity.

¹⁴MONROE, WALTER S. "The planning of teaching." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 22, No. 7, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 31. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1924, p. 17.

¹⁵It is not necessary to state lesson aims in terms of tasks rather than in terms of abilities to be acquired. In fact, wherever feasible it is preferable to state lesson aims or immediate objectives of lessons in terms of abilities to be acquired, for the attention of both pupil and teacher, in so far as possible, should be centered upon the ability to be attained rather than upon the task to be done. For example, a lesson aim in American history might be stated: To memorize the names of the presidents from Washington to Jackson, with the dates of their administrations and their party affiliations. A simple change of wording would shift the emphasis from the doing of the task to the specific habit to be engendered. A statement of the lesson aim from this point of view would be: Ability to repeat without error the names of the presidents from Washington to Jackson, with the dates of their administrations and their party affiliations.

But even the more remote immediate objectives are only means to the attainment of others still more remote which may be appropriately called ultimate objectives. The term "ultimate" carries with it a double connotation; first, remoteness, in this instance remoteness from the learner's activity, and second, finality, that is, an end that is an end in itself and not one which merely becomes a means to another end. However, two types of ultimate objectives may be distinguished on the basis of the points of view from which they are formulated. From one point of view ultimate objectives are stated in terms descriptive of future behavior or characteristics of individuals or of groups. Six of the seven objectives of secondary education promulgated by the National Education Association are of this nature—health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, citizenship, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character. The second objective can scarcely be considered as ultimate, but is rather a general statement of an immediate objective. Formulated from another point of view, ultimate objectives have to do with the performance of duties or occasions for the use of abilities. We speak of education for citizenship and in so doing imply that the ultimate objectives of education are the performance of the duties of citizenship.¹⁶ The three aims of secondary education as stated by Inglis¹⁷ are formulated from the point of view of occasion for the use of abilities. They are:

1. The social-civic aim, which "involves the preparation of individuals for efficient participation in those activities of society whose controlling purpose and primary object are desirable forms of social cooperation."

2. The economic-vocational aim, which "involves the preparation of the individual for efficient participation in those activities of society whose controlling purpose and primary object involve economic efficiency."

3. The individualistic-avocational aim, which "involves the preparation of the individual for those activities of life whose primary object and controlling purpose are personal development and personal happiness through the worthy use of leisure."

In résumé, we may say that the distinction between immediate and ultimate objectives is on the basis of ends and means as well as on the

¹⁶The method used for determining such objectives is known as "job analysis" or "activity analysis." For an account of this method, see:

CHARTERS, W. W. Curriculum Construction. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923. 352 p.

¹⁷INGLIS, ALEXANDER. Principles of Secondary Education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918, p. 367-75.

degree of remoteness and nearness to the learner's activity. Although immediate objectives are ends to be gained, they are also means to ever increasingly remote ends. The most remote of these ends are ultimate objectives, being ends in themselves without being means to further ends. These two major classes of objectives may be summarized as follows:¹⁸

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| Immediate
Objectives | { <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Learning activity. This type of objective is usually described in terms of learning exercises to be done or "ground-to-be-covered." 2. Abilities to be engendered. When objectives are thought of in terms of "abilities to be engendered," the doing of exercises becomes a means to this end. |
| Ultimate
Objectives | { <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Future behavior described in general terms. Using such words as citizenship, character, culture, and so forth. 4. Duties or occasions for the use of abilities. The relation between duties and "future behavior" may be described by saying that the terms, such as character, citizenship, social efficiency, and so forth used in describing future behavior specify in a general way how the duties of adult life are to be performed. |

General and specific objectives. Both ultimate and immediate objectives may be phrased with varying degrees of generality and specificity, but the inclusiveness or explicitness of statement does not to any appreciable extent determine the ultimateness or immediateness of an objective. Thus, to know all the presidents of the United States is more general in phraseology than to know the names of all the presidents of the United States and their party affiliations, with the dates of their administrations, but in no sense is the former more nearly an ultimate objective. Or as a further illustration, to engender a love for historical readings is a general statement of an immediate aim which might be made specific by stating some of the particular historical readings for which a love should be engendered, and by defining "love."

As a rule, ultimate objectives are stated with a high degree of generality, as for example the seven objectives of secondary education set up by the National Education Association. Immediate objectives are more frequently stated in specific terms, or at least a greater degree of specificity is attempted in setting up immediate objectives.

¹⁸MONROE, WALTER S. "Teachers' Objectives." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 39, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 45. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926, p. 8.

Trend of objectives in the social studies. A rather extended discussion of objectives has been given in order that a clear conception might be had of the different ways in which objectives are conceived and stated. Present practices in formulating objectives in the social studies exhibit three major trends: first, to emphasize the knowledge outcomes and general patterns of conduct in contrast to former emphasis upon specific habits of the fixed-association type; second, to formulate immediate objectives in as specific terms as possible rather than merely to formulate ultimate objectives stated in general terms; and third, to discover objectives by means of scientific techniques rather than to base them upon opinion alone.

The emphasis upon knowledge outcomes and general patterns of conduct is illustrated in the basic objectives that control the construction of the program in social science in the University of Chicago High School. As expressed by Hill,¹⁹ they are: "First, the development in boys and girls of social attitudes and social behaviors; second, the inculcation in pupils of an understanding of the social environment in which they live, its character, its needs, and its problems." However, emphasis upon such outcomes does not obviate the necessity for engendering specific habits, particularly fixed associations, a large number of which are fundamental to adequate development of the more adaptive controls. It is frequently said that the principal object of instruction in content subjects is to teach pupils to think, but it must not be forgotten that a certain amount of information with which to think is necessary.

Although there is a tendency to formulate immediate objectives in as specific terms as possible rather than merely to formulate ultimate objectives stated in general terms, relatively little progress has been made because of the difficulty of the task, undeveloped techniques, and similar conditions. In the main, only the more simple phases of the problem of formulating specific immediate objectives have been attacked by investigators. Such investigations as have been made have dealt mostly with the fixed associations to be established. The investigations of Washburne, Bassett, and Bagley²⁰ are illustrative of attempts to deter-

¹⁹"The nation at work on the public school curriculum." Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1926, p. 368.

²⁰WASHBURN, CARLETON W. "Building a fact course in history and geography." Twenty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1923, p. 99-110.

WASHBURN, CARLETON W. "Basic facts needed in history and geography; a statistical investigation." Twenty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study

mine objectives. The following statement of the attainments which seventh-grade pupils should achieve in studying South America illustrates an attempt by course-of-study makers to state immediate objectives in as specific terms as possible. Certain inconsistencies and weaknesses appear, but, as a pioneer attempt, the list is worthy of consideration.²¹

Attainments.

A. Minimum.

1. To know the relative position of South America as related to North America.
2. To know two principal highlands, three great plains and three great rivers draining these plains.
3. A brief survey of the A. B. C. countries.
4. To name the leading industrial activities and center of each of three other countries.
5. To know that South America and the United States have seasons that are opposite from point of time, and to know chief cause for this.
6. To know location of Panama Canal and bodies of water it connects; and that canal is owned and controlled by United States.

B. Average.

1. On an outline map of South America, place the surface regions, three highest mountain peaks, principal river systems, and five important sea ports.
2. Study intensively the A. B. C. countries.
3. Name the other countries and give their approximate location.
4. An intensive study of two important products of South America.
5. To know the leading industry of the minor countries with its important trade center and why such industry is important.

of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1923, p. 216-33.

BASSETT, B. B. "The content of the course of study in civics." Seventeenth Year-book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1918, p. 63-80.

MARSTON, L. R., MCKOWN, H. C., and BAGLEY, W. C. "A method of determining misplacements of emphasis in seventh and eighth-grade history." Seventeenth Year-book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1918, p. 90-96.

²¹"Geography and science—secondary course of study." Trenton, New Jersey: Board of Education, 1923, p. 30-31.

6. To know the two cities at the extremities of the Panama Canal and the value of the canal for trade between the United States and South America.

C. Maximum.

1. To be able to appreciate the future possibilities of South America.
2. To know how surface and climatic conditions have affected the development of the leading countries of South America.
3. To appreciate why the United States should become better acquainted with South America and develop trade relations with her.
4. Value of the Panama Canal as a world highway of trade.
5. Give several results of the earth's rotation.
6. To explain the cause of the change of seasons.

The tendency to discover objectives in so far as possible rather than to base them upon opinion alone is not discussed at this point but is taken up in the following paragraphs since it is intimately related to the tendencies in methods of determining pupil experiences and directive procedures.

2. Methods of determining outcomes, pupil experiences, and directive procedures. A reciprocal cause and effect relationship exists between the types of outcomes emphasized and the methods of determining what these outcomes should be. It cannot be said that one follows the other, for each develops as the other progresses. However, they may be discussed separately. A similar relationship exists between the pupil experiences provided, the directive procedures used by the teachers, and the methods employed in determining what these experiences and procedures should be.

The changes in methods of determining outcomes, pupil experiences, and directive procedures are closely related, being a part of the so-called scientific movement in education. The newer methods of determining outcomes, experiences, and procedures are characterized in the main by a critical attitude toward present practices and objectivity of data in determining what should be. Tryon²² identifies the following fourteen methods of determining the content of social studies.

I. Analysis of political party platforms.

II. Securing the judgments of representative citizens and groups of citizens.

²²TRYON, R. M. "History and the other social studies in junior and senior high school—a general survey and criticism," *The Historical Outlook*, 17:213-19, May, 1926. An excellent bibliography for each of the techniques is given.

- III. Analysis of newspapers, periodicals, magazines, readers' guides, and indexes to periodical literature.
- IV. Pooling of opinion of leading authorities by means of questionnaire method.
- V. Analysis of textbooks in history and the other social studies.
- VI. Analysis of books (other than texts) in sociology, economics, and political science.
- VII. Analysis of courses of study in history and other social studies.
- VIII. Analysis of subject-matter outside the social studies field.
- IX. Pooling the opinion of experts through committee reports.
- X. Analysis of examination questions in history.
- XI. Searching for references that one is apt to meet in contemporary life as revealed in best sellers, short stories, jokes, comic pictures in newspapers, and legends of movie picture shows.
- XII. Determining the civic activities that laymen actually perform in the course of their daily life.
- XIII. Analysis of encyclopedias for material in the social aspects of life.
- XIV. Setting up specific objectives and principles and seeking subject-matter to satisfy them.

In one of the Research Bulletins of the National Education Association, seven approaches to curriculum building are briefly described and commented upon.²³ Most of the techniques mentioned in these two references have to do with the determination of objectives and content. However, some of them are also applicable to the determination of teaching procedures. The principal characteristic of the techniques that have been developed is the attempt to be objective, perhaps to an unjustifiable extreme in some instances.

3. Pupil experiences and directive procedures. The trends in pupil experiences and directive procedures are evidenced by the changes in: (a) the content and number of subjects offered in the social studies group, (b) the correlations between the social studies and other school subjects, (c) the relation of the social studies to extra-curricular activities, (d) the adaptations to local conditions, and (e) the influence of such variations in procedures as the problem and project methods and motivation.

²³ "Keeping pace with the advancing curriculum." Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. 3, Nos. 4 and 5. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1925, p. 116-17.

a. Content and number of courses offered. As previously defined in this circular, the social studies are those which relate directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups. A wide variety of individual courses are designated as social studies, their content coming chiefly from the fields of history, sociology, economics, political science and geography. There is a tendency to add two other closely related fields to this group: first, guidance, including educational and vocational guidance; second, character education. Although this is a tendency, it is not pronounced enough to justify consideration of these last two fields in this circular. Also, their problems at present possess such peculiarities that they should be dealt with separately.

Although several fields of knowledge are being drawn upon for the content of the social studies and a great variety of specific courses are offered, there is a distinct tendency to form unified or combined courses,²⁴ usually having a certain continuity throughout the elementary and secondary schools, beginning in the early grades and progressing more or less regularly through to the senior year of the high school, but also tending toward subject-matter specialization in the later years.²⁵

In keeping with the tendency to scrutinize and reformulate the objectives, there is a tendency to examine critically the content of the social studies, asking to what extent each item of content contributes to a realization of the objectives set up, and asking particularly to what extent it is socially significant. Many studies are being made with this general point of view in mind, as for instance, a study to determine what civic instruction will make intelligent voters.²⁶ An underlying

²⁴The following table represents the results of a questionnaire study relative to unification. It is based on 148 replies from representatives of county, city, and state school organizations and teacher-training institutions.

Grades	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII
Percent of Replies Favoring Unification	90.6	88.7	88.8	80.2	69.9	65.8	66.4	67.2	58.8	3.13	31.9	37.7

“The nation at work on the public school curriculum.” Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1926, p. 327.

²⁵One of the outstanding examples of the way in which a course has been worked out along these lines is the Pennsylvania program of social studies. For a description of it, see:

GAMBRILL, J. MONTGOMERY. “Experimental curriculum-making in the social studies,” *The Historical Outlook*, 15:37-42, January, 1924.

²⁶BASSETT, B. B. “The content of the course of study in civics.” *Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1918, p. 63-80.

philosophy of social usefulness and many investigations are resulting in a refinement of the social-studies content. Much that is considered of little probable usefulness to most individuals is being eliminated, for instance, insignificant dates and names; and some material that is thought to be of much immediate social value is being added to the social studies, for example, subject-matter dealing with present-day civic problems.

b. Correlation between the social studies and other school subjects.²⁷ At present there are strong tendencies toward making English and the social studies the core of the curriculum, particularly beginning with the junior high school. English and the social studies have even been combined into a single course in the first year of the high school.²⁸ It appears that correlation, one time an educational fad, has left a definite impress on school practice. One evidence of it is the relationship that many endeavor to bring about between the social studies and other school subjects. For example, the equipment necessary for some projects in the social studies is built in manual arts classes, the natural science involved in the study of some civic problems is more fully developed in natural science classes, at other times the correctness of data included in papers written for social studies classes is passed upon by the science teacher, or the same papers may be submitted for credit in both courses. In brief, the tendency is to bring the social studies into vital relationship with other school subjects wherever possible.

c. Relation of the social studies to extra-curricular activities. Widespread efforts to make the citizenship training of the social studies function has resulted in many schemes for carrying the work of the classroom over into extra-curricular activities, and in some instances for carrying the extra-curricular activities into the work of the social studies classes. For example, current-events clubs are formed, students participate to a greater or less degree in school control, civics classes take charge of student elections, and so forth. But even when there is no

²⁷For a short bibliography on correlation of the social studies with other subjects, see:

The Historical Outlook, 16:362-63, December, 1925.

²⁸For a description of one course, see:

HILL, HOWARD C. "Educational economy in the reorganization of the social studies," Twenty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1923, p. 111-25.

The authors of a recent series of arithmetics have even gone so far as to classify arithmetic among the social studies. See:

McMURRY, FRANK, and BENSON, C. BEVERLEY. Social Arithmetic, Books One, Two, and Three. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926.

ostensible relationship between the social studies and extra-curricular activities, the knowledge and general patterns of conduct gained in the social studies are expected to function to a certain extent in other than class-room activities of the pupils. There is also a strong tendency to place more and more emphasis upon the citizenship training that is given by means of extra-curricular activities.²⁹

d. Adaptation of the social studies to local conditions and needs.

The social studies have been affected about as much as any other group of subjects by attempts to adjust curricula to local conditions. Courses in local geography and history are frequently offered; civics courses are frequently based chiefly upon local community³⁰ conditions; and the teaching in many other courses is related to local conditions. In general the tendency is either to take advantage of local conditions in order to motivate the teaching of the social studies or to use the social studies to help understand local conditions. We have here a special manifestation of two general tendencies that are evident in most teaching: first, to make school subjects less abstract, and second, to make them function in out-of-school activities.

e. Modifications of directive procedures. It is possible that innovations, such as the project method, have influenced the directive procedures used in the social studies as greatly as in any group of subjects. The general tendency is to get away from the traditional assignment method, especially the catechetical aspects of it, and to introduce more and more the project, the problem and the case method, student reports, free use of supplementary references, much library work, field trips, and studies of local situations. In brief, the liberalizing influences which have wrought considerable changes in teaching procedures in all subjects appear to find in the social studies one of the richest fields for expression and development.

Summary. Looking at the matter broadly, it appears that the major tendencies in the social studies are: to bring more fields of subject-matter into close relation under the general designation of social studies; to scrutinize the actual content of courses, particularly with regard to

²⁹For references bearing on this last statement, see:

O'DELL, CHARLES W., and BLOUGH, JOHN H. "An annotated bibliography dealing with extra-curricular activities in elementary and high schools." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 24, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 29. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925, p. 23-28.

³⁰Community Civics does not necessarily mean a study of the local community but of both large and small communities. The local community may furnish the point of departure, but the state and nation, and even the world, are also studied as communities in such courses.

its immediate social significance for the pupils; to relate the work in the social studies to the work in other subjects and to the extra-curricular activities of the school; to make adjustments so as to take advantage of local conditions as well as to meet local needs; and to change the teachers' directive procedures so that they are in keeping with the more liberal tendencies.

CHAPTER III

FUNCTION AND PLAN OF COURSES OF STUDY³¹

Course-of-study making a cooperative enterprise. The making of courses of study is no longer thought of as a one-man task, but is generally undertaken as a cooperative enterprise. The number of persons involved depends upon the school system, the courses of study to be formulated or revised, and the specific plan adopted. If the course of study for only one subject is to be made, the superintendent and the teachers of the subject (and the supervisor, if there is one) are usually the only persons involved, but if the courses of study for most or all of the subjects taught in a school system are to be formulated, all of the teachers and school officials may be working on the project, often with the assistance of curriculum experts and sometimes with the help of laymen. In some of the larger city systems elaborate organizations have been built up, but in smaller cities the work is gone about more simply. Nevertheless, a great deal of cooperation is possible even in the smaller systems. Many superintendents state that cooperative course-of-study making has proved to be the most valuable work that they have undertaken for the improvement of teachers in service.³²

Function of courses of study. Courses of study serve a two-fold function: first, to coordinate the work of the teachers of a school system, and second, to help them as individual teachers. The coordinating function is aptly discussed in the following quotation. "When a teacher is provided with a carefully prepared course of study, she has a detailed statement of the specific tasks assigned to her and the directions for the performance of these tasks. Thus she is able to undertake her year's

³¹For an enumeration of purposes and criteria for evaluating courses of study, see: "Keeping pace with the advancing curriculum." Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. 3, Nos. 4 and 5. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1925, p. 179-81.

³²For discussions of plans of organization and benefits to be derived from cooperative course-of-study making, see:

MONROE, WALTER S. "Making a course of study." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 2, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 35. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925, p. 11-17.

"The elementary school curriculum." Second Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1924, p. 35-76.

"The nation at work on the public school curriculum." Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1926, p. 19-54.

work, confident that if she complies with the specifications, she will be cooperating with the other teachers in a consistent and unified effort to educate the children of the community. Without a course of study a teacher works more or less in the dark. Although, individually the teachers of a school system may be capable, industrious, and conscientious in their work, they will not, except by accident, coordinate their efforts in the best way unless they are provided with a good course of study.”³³

The teaching tasks may be ever so well apportioned to the various school grades, and thus each teacher be assured of her proper niche in the task of educating the children, but that is not enough. There must be a fair degree of certainty that each teacher will perform her tasks satisfactorily. A well-prepared course of study provides a teacher with many suggestions as to appropriate and effective procedures to be used in accomplishing her apportionment of the work. These suggestions are made in proximity to the enumeration of tasks to be performed, which gives added pertinence to both. Without a course of study, reliance must be placed on each teacher familiarizing herself with the books on methods of teaching and with the numerous educational magazine articles on the subject, and then applying whatever she finds to be usable. There is not a high degree of assurance that this procedure will achieve satisfactory results. One reason for this lack of assurance is that such material is not available to as many teachers as it should be.

Types of material in courses of study. The double purpose of courses of study largely determines their content. In order to coordinate the efforts of the teachers of a school system and to help them use appropriate teaching procedures, the following two general types of material should be included: (1) specifications of the detailed objectives of each course and of the material aids to instruction, and (2) directions relative to instruction, which consist chiefly of suggestions as to learning exercises and methods of stimulating and directing learning.

Plan of organization of courses of study. Courses of study are instruments designed to assist in making instruction more efficient. Next to their actual content, probably the most important factor that determines the effectiveness of courses of study is the way in which this content is presented, since a poor organization may conceal many excellent suggestions. The better practices in course-of-study making indicate that a course of study should be organized along lines similar to the following:

³³MONROE, WALTER S. *op. cit.*, p. 4-5.

1. Introduction. The introduction to a course of study serves a four-fold function: first, to make clear the function and plan of the course of study to those who are to use it; second, to establish the point of view which prevails throughout the course of study; third, to give a broad view of the subject throughout the grades in which it is taught; and fourth, to present discussions of the major aspects of class instruction. Each of these functions is discussed later with special reference to the social studies.

2. Course of study by grades. Following the introductory section should be a separate section for each grade in which the subject is taught. The material in these grade sections may be grouped under two general classifications: first, specifications; second, suggestions relative to instruction. The specifications for each grade include a detailed statement of objectives, an outline of the work for that grade, the name of the textbook to be used, a list of supplementary references, and any desirable list of other instructional materials to be used. The suggestions relative to instruction which are made in the grade sections are made up chiefly of direct aids to the teacher such as lists of effective learning exercises, good means to use in motivating pupil activity, and lists of tests available for evaluating pupil achievement.

3. References for the teacher. Finally, there should be a short annotated bibliography of selected references which the teachers may use.

Outline of a course of study in the social studies. An outline of the salient items of a course of study in the social studies is given to provide a guide for those attempting to prepare one. The assumption underlying this outline, as well as all of the succeeding discussion, is that one course of study is to be written for the social studies throughout the entire elementary and secondary school, or at the most, one course of study for each school division—elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school—rather than a separate course of study for each subject—history, civics, geography, and so forth. Such an assumption does not necessarily presuppose a composite or unified course, for the individual subjects may be kept separate from each other, although there must be some recognition of their comparatively close relationship.

If a separate volume is published for each of the major school divisions or for each subject, the introductory section should be presented in a separate introductory volume or rewritten with appropriate modifications for each course-of-study volume. In the following outline the grade divisions are not presented in full, but instead the outline which should be followed for each subject is given.

Although this outline is made on the assumption that one course of study in the social studies is to be made for the entire school system, and what is said in the following pages is written from the same point of view, most of it is applicable to whatever organization may be adopted by a school system for their courses and courses of study. Occasionally, however, minor changes will be necessary in both point of view and form of organization.

I. Introduction

- A. Purpose and plan of course of study
- B. Purpose of education and of the social studies (including statement of ultimate objectives)
- C. The social-studies program
- D. Essential differences between instruction in elementary, junior-high, and senior-high school
- E. Technique of instruction in classes

II. Course of study by grades

The outline should provide a separate division for each of the first six, eight, or nine grades, depending upon the administrative organization of school divisions. Within each of the grade divisions there should be a subdivision for each subject to be taught in that grade. For the senior high school the course-of-study divisions should be made on the basis of subjects only. The following outline should be followed for each subject in both the elementary and secondary divisions.

Subject of study

1. Specifications

a. Immediate objectives

(1) General

- (a) Specific habits—fixed associations
- (b) Knowledge controls
- (c) General patterns of conduct

(2) Specific

- (a) Definitely stated
- (b) Implied in subject outline

b. Material aids to instruction

2. Suggestions relative to instruction

a. Learning exercises

b. Means of motivating pupil activity

c. Means of evaluating pupil achievement

III. References for the teacher

CHAPTER IV

CONTENT OF COURSES OF STUDY IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A. Introductory section. The four-fold function of the introductory section of courses of study in general was stated in preceding pages. Each of the sub-functions is dealt with at this point with particular reference to the social studies.

1. Function and plan of the course of study. The first service that the introduction to a course of study should render the teacher is to make clear the function of the course of study as an instrument of supervision, that is, as a guide and help to the teacher in her task of educating children. This statement of function may include suggestions as to the way in which the course of study is to be used. There should also be statements explaining the plan of organization so that the teacher may proceed intelligently to the major portion of the course of study.

2. Point of view. Following the explicit statements of purpose, ways of using, and plan, there should be a statement of the point of view or educational philosophy that is exemplified in the succeeding pages of the course of study. An educational philosophy is basic to any formulation of courses of study, just as some philosophy is basic to any large undertaking. If teachers are to make the most effective use possible of a course of study, they should explicitly recognize the assumptions that lie back of it. The two major topics that should be given consideration in a statement of educational philosophy with reference to the social studies are: first, the general purpose of education; second, the part that the social studies as a whole, and each subject in particular, have in realizing this general purpose.

In the process of making courses of study, the statements of educational philosophy should be formulated early in order that the makers may be fully conscious of their guiding principles. If a course of study is formulated with a definite educational philosophy in mind, it will assume a certain consistency which will add greatly to the effectiveness of the finished product.

No doubt anyone who starts to write a course of study will have an educational philosophy upon which to base a formulation of general objectives, but neither the educational philosophy nor the objectives may be clearly defined. In such instances, it would be well to read one

or two books on educational theory and methods of teaching the social studies before attempting to write out a point of view and ultimate objectives.³⁴

A statement of the ultimate objectives of the social studies may well be included with the statement of the part that the social studies have in realizing the general purposes of education, or the ultimate objectives may be discussed separately. However, under either plan, they should be presented in the introductory section of the course of study.

3. Broad view. In order to enable the teachers of the social studies to orientate properly their particular courses, they should be given a broad view of all of the social studies that are to be taught in the elementary and secondary schools. This is more desirable for the social studies than for some other subjects because of the tendency to draw several subjects and fields of study into close correlation and even to form unified or composite courses. In addition, there is general recognition of a need to make the social studies continuous, and more or less cumulative, from the early grades to the end of the high school.

A broad view may be provided by means of three or four devices in the introduction to a course of study. There may be a general expository passage that presents a view of the social studies in general. The program of studies may be given, that is, a statement of the subjects to be studied in each grade, the number of minutes per week to be allotted each subject, and a list of required and elective courses, with prerequisites, in the secondary school. The objectives of each subject may be presented in a tabular, or at least cumulative, form of outline so that the progress from grade to grade, as well as the interrelations between courses, may be evident. A general outline of the various courses may also be included. It appears that the best practice in course-of-study making provides for at least a general exposition and statements relative to the program of studies.

4. Essential differences between instruction in elementary, junior-high, and senior-high schools. As a group of subjects with a certain continuity over a wide spread of school grades, the social studies involve certain difficulties that are not pronounced in subjects, such as reading and arithmetic, in which formal instruction is confined to a comparatively short span of school years. The differences in purposes of instruction, types of subject-matter, and methods of instruction at the various grade levels are proportionate to the span of years intervening. The

³⁴See bibliography for suggested references.

variations in these phases of instruction are chiefly dependent upon two sets of factors: (1) the maturity of pupils, and (2) the different functions to be served by education at various levels. The elementary school and the senior high school include the two extremes; the junior high school is the period of transition from one to the other. Of course a certain amount of gradual change is wrought throughout the elementary school, that is, by the time the upper grades are reached, the purpose, learning exercises, and directive procedures are much more similar to those of the high school than they are to those of the lower grades. However, one of the explicit functions of the junior high school is to effect a gradual transition so as to bridge the gap which usually exists at this point in an eight-four form of organization.

On the whole the elementary school is the period devoted to mastery of the educational tools in both tool and content subjects. The predominating function is the inculcation of abilities, attitudes, and ideals common to everyone. On the other hand, the differentiating function becomes of considerable importance, if not predominant, in the senior high school. The subjects studied throughout the elementary school are largely the same for all pupils. In the senior high school much election of subjects is allowed and encouraged. Only English and the social studies remain as subjects required of all pupils in many schools, although occasionally other subjects are also required. Memorization is prominent in the elementary school with consequent emphasis on drill. Although drill is still much in evidence on the high-school level, there is a decided shift toward an emphasis on reflective thinking or reasoning. Referring to the previous discussion of objectives and the three classes of controls of conduct to be engendered by the school—specific habits, knowledge, and general patterns of conduct—it may be said that the outcomes of the elementary school are mostly specific habits as direct outcomes, and general patterns of conduct as incidental outcomes. In the high school the knowledge outcomes take on greatly added importance.

5. The technique of class instruction. Although the course of study should not be a treatise on the technique of teaching, it should contain some discussion of the technique of class instruction along with numerous “practical” suggestions which teachers may apply directly in their teaching. Statements of general principles and other generalizations need not be repeated for each grade and subject, but may be presented at one place in the course of study, preferably in the introductory section. The more detailed and immediately applicable aids to teaching may be better placed in the grade and subject divisions so that added

meaning and serviceability may be given them by their juxtaposition to the specifications.

The function of the teacher is to stimulate and direct the learning process. The activities in which he engages in realizing this function may be classified more or less sequentially as follows: (a) devising learning exercises, (b) assigning learning exercises, (c) directing the doing of learning exercises, (d) motivating pupil activity, (e) evaluating pupil achievement, (f) diagnosing pupil difficulty, and (g) giving direct assistance. Most of the activities on the part of the teacher are carried on in class or recitation periods.

Class periods serve a double function: first, to provide opportunity for learning under the immediate direction of the teacher, and second, to prepare for learning away from the immediate direction of the teacher. Of course the second function is less prominent whenever all of the formal learning is done in the class period, as happens with any scheme of supervised study or laboratorized work when no tasks are assigned to be done away from the immediate supervision of the teacher. In realizing either of these two functions, the teacher engages in all seven of the types of activity enumerated in the preceding paragraph. However, the activities of the teacher in relation to preparing for learning away from his immediate supervision are characterized by greater formality and directness than in providing for opportunities for learning under his immediate supervision. For example, the teacher employs formal tests in the main for the purpose of evaluating pupil achievement in doing learning exercises outside of the class period, but much of the evaluation of pupil achievement in doing learning exercises under the direct supervision of the teacher is incidental and informal, being made during the time that the pupil is doing the exercise or immediately on completing it.

The purpose in this circular is to direct the attention of course-of-study makers to the aspects of class instruction which are mentioned in the preceding paragraphs and not to present a dissertation such as might appear in a course of study. However, a brief discussion of the seven types of teaching activity may assist in understanding them.

a. Devising learning exercises. Textbooks in the social studies are chiefly compilations of material to be read and not of exercises to be done, although at present there is a tendency for the makers of textbooks in the social studies to suggest exercises to be done by the pupils. However, it is still largely left to the teacher to devise the learning exercises which the pupils are to do in order that they may achieve the objectives set for them.

The learning exercises that a teacher assigns probably play a more important part in stimulating and directing the pupils' learning than do many of the directive procedures which he employs. For instance, the kind of learning exercises which pupils do are probably more significant than whether the project or assignment method is used if the teacher is equally stimulating in using either method. However, comparatively little attention has been given by either educational theorists, textbook writers, or practical school administrators and supervisors to assisting teachers in devising exercises. Observers often criticize teaching as inefficient, yet are not aware that in many instances the kind of exercises set by the teacher is the factor that makes for inefficiency. For example, in assigning new lessons, teachers frequently direct the pupils merely to read instead of stating a problem for which reading will be required as a means.

The course of study should point out the purposes to be accomplished by various types of exercises, such as, comparison of two or more authors' points of view on controversial matters, preparation of topical summaries, making reports to the class, listening to pupil reports, and the like. In this connection some suggestions should be made as to ways in which the textbook and other material aids to instruction should be used. For instance, as pupils progress through the school the use of supplementary references should increase and less dependence should be placed upon the text as a major source of information. The discussion of learning exercises should also include whatever is said about some of the more specialized aspects of instruction, such as the use of projects, problems, notebooks, and current events, which are chiefly significant because of the types of learning experiences involved.³⁵

³⁵Since most of the learning exercises in the social studies involve reading, exercises of this nature need to be given especial attention. The following twelve types of learning in textbook study have been identified:

1. Comprehension of material read plus memorization so that it can be reproduced.
2. With the text at hand preparation of a summary which contains the central ideas of the assignment studied.
3. With the text at hand preparation of an outline which gives the principal points and supporting details arranged to show order or relative importance and relations to each other.
4. Obtaining information for the purpose of solving problems or answering questions.
5. Extension of one's range of general information by reading widely material directly related to a given subject.
6. Discovery of collateral or illustrative material for topics or problems under discussion.
7. Enlargement of vocabulary.
8. Appreciation of the significance of each word used in a concisely expressed statement or principle.

Relation of learning exercises to local conditions. In educational writing and discussions, much attention is given to the effect of local conditions on curricula and courses of study. The work of the school may be adjusted to local needs in at least two ways: (1) by adaptations of objectives and (2) by adaptations of learning exercises. The distinction between these two types of adjustments is seldom made, although it is fundamental to any consideration of adaptations of school work to particular localities. The objectives of the social studies are essentially the same for most communities in the United States, but diverse means may be used in different communities in order to arrive at the same objectives. For example, it may be that one of the more recent and special forms of city government, such as the commission or city manager form, may have been adopted recently or it may be under discussion and subject to vote in an approaching election. Such a situation offers unique opportunity on which to base learning exercises. Some such situations are only temporary and must be taken advantage of as they arise, for they cannot be foreseen to any extent. Other local conditions are of a semi-permanent nature and can well be suggested in the course of study.

Local conditions may handicap the work in the social studies as well as afford advantages such as those just mentioned. The presence of a large foreign element, for instance, may make it necessary to de-

9. A clear comprehension of the essential conditions of a problem which is to be solved.

10. Discovery of new or supplementary problems related to the topic being studied.

11. Drawing valid conclusions from given data or statements.

12. Following directions with accuracy and reasonable speed.

From:

MONROE, WALTER S. "Types of learning required of pupils in the seventh and eighth grades and in the high school." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 19, No. 15, *Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 7*. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1921. 16 p.

For an analysis of the causes of errors made by a group of high-school students in doing the first of these types of textbook study, and the remedial measures suggested, see:

MONROE, WALTER S., and MOHLMAN, DORA KEEN. "Errors made by high-school students in one type of textbook study." *School Review*, 31:36-47, January, 1923.

In a manuscript which is soon to be published, Dr. Monroe views this matter of textbook study with particular emphasis upon the point of view of the learner. He distinguishes the following seven reading purposes or attitudes:

1. Reading to understand.

2. Reading to remember.

3. Searching for information.

4. Critical attitude toward statement of author.

5. Supplementing the text.

6. Analytical study of the text.

7. Reading for enjoyment.

wise many learning exercises that are suited to meet the unusual situation. Thus, the content of a subject may be varied in order to appeal to the particular interests of the pupils, to emphasize ideas and ideals that demand especial attention for their inculcation, such as American ideals of liberty, or to meet other needs.

b. Assigning learning exercises. Probably next in importance to the learning exercises to be done is the assigning of them by the teacher. In the lower grades most of the pupils' studying is done during school hours and more or less under the immediate supervision of the teacher. In the upper grades and high school the tendency is toward independent study, that is, the teacher does not give the pupils so much immediate direction. The importance of detailed assignments tends to increase as the amount of immediate supervision by the teacher decreases. If pupils are to work effectively and build up adequate study habits, they must have well defined tasks to perform. The result to be attained must be clearly conceived by the pupils and the method of procedure understood. Of course the definition of tasks by the teacher must not be such as to breed dependence on "cook-book recipe" types of directions, but rather to develop ability to work independently and effectively. However, much of the inefficiency of methods of study which pupils exhibit as well as much of study-period idleness and mischief-making, is traceable to poor lesson assignments, that is, poor directions for work. Pupils attempt to study independently without having clear ideas as to what should be accomplished or the means of accomplishing it. As a result they work ineffectively or are idle because they do not know what to do, or think that they have accomplished the assigned task when they have not. The course of study should give suggestions on the characteristics of good assignments, such as the time of making and the goals set up. Criteria for judging assignments may also be given, as well as some examples.³⁶

c. Directing the doing of learning exercises. In the case of learning exercises which are to be done away from the immediate supervision

³⁶For suggestions on reading exercises see:

MONROE, WALTER S., and MOHLMAN, DORA KEEN. "Training in the technique of study." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 22, No. 2, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 20. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1924. 66 p.

This is a study of training in the technique of study. Directions for study are given; also, an analysis of the study habits of bright children. A bibliography is appended.

Also see:

ODELL, CHARLES W. "The assignment of lessons." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 7, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 38. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925. 20 p.

of the teacher, the directing of the pupils in doing them is so intimately tied up with the assignment that very little distinction is possible even in an arbitrary analysis such as the one presented in this circular. But in the case of learning exercises done within the class period, directing the doing of learning exercises is an activity of the teacher which is fairly prominent and distinct from the assignment. Outstanding problems for the teacher in this connection are such as the following: How to secure maximum pupil activity that is educative. How to encourage pupil initiative without undue inefficiency or ineffectiveness. How to direct and yet make the pupil responsible.

A large proportion of the teacher's directing is incidental and informal, as for example in directing pupil discussions. Frequently the direction is simply implied by the action. For example, pupils are seldom directed to follow a teacher's line of thought when he explains something, although the direction is clearly implied. Occasionally directions are formal and very explicit, as when the teacher directs the pupil to look in a particular book for the answer to a question which has been raised or tells him to follow a certain procedure in reading his textbook.

On the whole, the directing of pupils in doing learning exercises is an activity on the part of the teacher which requires consummate skill and judgment. The course of study may direct the attention of the teacher to some of the more important features of this task, but assiduous practice and careful supervision are necessary in order to achieve a high degree of ability.

d. Motivating pupil activity. Pupil activity is motivated in the main by having pupils do things which are interesting to them. Many pupils like to read historical novels, to look at pictures, to take part in or witness dramatization of historical events, to visit places of historical or civic interest in the community, to make cartoons or write poems depicting historical facts, and to do many other things which teachers ask of them. In turn, these activities add point and interest to some of the more formal activities which pupils are asked to do, such as those in connection with textbook material. The appropriateness of any motivating procedure depends upon the need for motivation, which in turn depends in the main upon the objectives to be attained, the type of reading or other activity being engaged in, the age and interests of the pupils, and the materials of instruction which are being used. The predominant use of textbooks in the social studies, with consequent novelty when exercises are engaged in which involve other materials, makes

the situation such that the problem of motivation appears chiefly in connection with pupil activities that involve the use of textbooks.

From a negative point of view, two things should be noted about motivation. In the first place, teachers should not ask pupils to engage in certain activities merely because the pupils like to do them, but rather because engaging in them will definitely contribute to the engendering of desired controls of conduct. Otherwise, motivation is likely not to result in any desired educational product and may even produce undesirable results. In the second place, teachers should not feel that they must explicitly motivate every learning activity of pupils. Such a procedure frequently results in what is known as "sugar coating" and produces undesirable attitudes in the pupils.

e. Evaluating pupil achievement. The course of study should not attempt to be a treatise on testing, particularly on the use of standardized tests. References may be given which give a more extended treatment of the subject. However, the course of study should present the salient points with regard to methods and means of evaluating pupil achievement. Some of the more important features that may be discussed are: the use of standardized tests,³⁷ the construction and use of more or less informal tests of the "new examination" type,³⁸ the use of the more traditional types of examination, particularly those involving thought questions,³⁹ and the marking of test papers, especially making the distinction between scores and marks or grades.

f. Diagnosing pupil difficulty. One of the most important uses to which tests and test results may be put by the classroom teacher is the diagnosing of pupil difficulty. The course of study should list and describe types of difficulties which frequently occur. For example, pupils often exhibit a lack of understanding of a generalization. If a test reveals that the pupil has very little specific information of the type on

³⁷See:

MONROE, W. S., DeVoss, J. C., and KELLY, F. J. *Educational Tests and Measurements*, Revised and Enlarged Edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924, p. 272-96.

³⁸See:

ODELL, C. W. "Objective measurement of information." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 36, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 44. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926, p. 3-27.

RUCH, G. M. *The Improvement of the Written Examination*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1924. 193 p.

³⁹See:

MONROE, W. S., and SOUDERS, L. B. "The present status of written examinations and suggestions for their improvement." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 21, No. 13, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 17. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1923, p. 7-77.

which the generalization depends, it is probable that this is one of the factors making for a lack of understanding. This is a phase of the teacher's work which has been studied very little in the field of the social studies. Because of the lack of information available, course-of-study makers have an especially good opportunity to be of real assistance to teachers. Inasmuch as most of the work in the social studies involves reading, a large amount of what has been done with diagnosis of pupil difficulty in reading is applicable. However, other types of difficulty must be discovered. Some suggestions about how to proceed in making use of test results, particularly how to diagnose pupils' difficulties should be given. Yet the course of study should not go into too much detail. It may be supplemented by references to good treatises on the subject.

g. Giving direct assistance. Some kind of direct assistance should always follow diagnosis, for otherwise the diagnosis does not serve the purpose for which it is made. Most assistance is given in study periods in which the teacher assists the pupils by answering questions, telling them where they may find certain materials, by assigning supplementary exercises that are designed to help the pupils overcome certain difficulties, and the like. Most assistance should usually be of the nature of assigning supplementary exercises.⁴⁰

By reason of the nature of the difficulties to be overcome, most assistance must be individual, although sometimes the teacher may deal with a group. Many school systems adopt some formal scheme, usually called supervised study, for the purpose of giving the teacher, among other things, an opportunity to assist the pupils more than is possible in a traditionally organized school. In the periods set aside for such work the teacher may assist the pupils individually or in groups. If a school system has adopted a particular scheme of supervised study, some specific direction should be given so that the instruction in the social studies will fit in with the general plan. In such instances, it is frequently desirable to incorporate a separate topic in the introductory section of the course of study rather than attempt to place all that is to be said about supervising study under the topic of giving direct assistance.

B. Course of study by grades. The general nature of the content of the grade divisions of the course of study was set forth briefly in

⁴⁰See:

MONROE, WALTER S., and MOHLMAN, DORA KEEN. "Training in the technique of study." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 22, No. 2, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 23. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1924. 66 p.

MONROE, WALTER S., and MOHLMAN, DORA KEEN. "Errors made by high-school students in one type of textbook study," *School Review*, 31:36-47, January, 1923.

preceding pages. It will be helpful to consider a somewhat more detailed analysis of this content with particular reference to the social studies.

1. Specifications. There are two general types of specifications: (a) objectives, and (b) material aids to instruction.

a. Objectives. Several types of objectives and ways of classifying them have been recognized and discussed in preceding pages. In the social studies, it seems that the most helpful classification of objectives to guide their formulation and use is:

- I. Ultimate objectives—General in statement and phrased in terms of characteristics of individuals.
- II. Immediate objectives
 - A. General in statement but in terms of
 1. Specific habits—mostly fixed associations
 2. Knowledge outcomes
 3. General patterns of conduct
 - B. Specific in statement
 1. Definitely stated in so far as possible—largely in terms of standards of attainment
 2. Implied in subject outlines⁴¹

Ultimate objectives should be formulated first in order to furnish a guide to the formulation of immediate objectives. Such progress has been made in the development of objectives that the statement of ultimate objectives can be fairly complete. Somewhat more difficult is the formulation of an adequate list of immediate objectives. A moderately comprehensive list stated in general terms can be made without much difficulty, but anything like a comprehensive list of detailed and explicit specific objectives in the social studies is at present unattainable. Presentation of a complete list of immediate objectives in terms of tasks to be performed should probably not be attempted in a course of study. Their formulation is a task that may well be left for teachers to perform as the learners progress under their direction.

Aside from being explicitly stated, objectives are implied in specifications of topics to be studied. In courses of study it may well be considered that the chief function served by subject outlines is the defining of objectives by implication—certain facts and topics are to be

⁴¹The work of determining objectives has not progressed sufficiently to make it possible to give a satisfactory list of specific objectives in the social studies. Some fairly adequate lists of personages, places, dates, and events are available, but in large measure the specific objectives must still be implied by means of outlines of subject-matter to be covered.

known in certain relationships, the degrees of thoroughness to be determined by the teacher's judgment.

The course of study in the social studies should set forth the following objectives: first, in the introductory section, the ultimate objectives for the social studies as a whole; second, in the second division of the course of study devoted to each grade and subject, the immediate objectives for that grade and subject, for example, for Community Civics in the ninth grade; and third, following the statement of immediate objectives should be a subject outline for each grade and subject. If a subject is to be considered as a distinct unit within the general field of the social studies but is to be developed throughout two or more grades, say American history in the seventh and eighth grades, then the immediate objectives and content may be treated for these two or more grades as it would otherwise be treated for one grade.

b. Material aids to instruction. The course of study should specify the material aids to instruction, such as textbooks, supplementary books, and other materials and devices which are to be used or which are available for use if desired. Theoretically, at least, the textbook for a course should not be selected until after the objectives have been formulated, for the choice of a textbook should be largely determined by the nature of the objectives set up. Actually, textbooks are often already chosen and in use, so that those who write the course of study have merely to accept the textbooks and make the best adjustments possible. Usually, too, the supplementary books are already in the school library and only a few are likely to be purchased on recommendation of the course-of-study committee. About the same is true of other materials and devices, such as maps, globes, lantern slides, models, and the like. All of these material aids to instruction should be enumerated in the course of study, with discussions as to their availability and use. Although such lists and discussions may be presented in one place for all grades and subjects, it is probably better to give those most suitable for a particular grade or subject at the beginning of the portion of the course of study devoted to that grade or subject. In this way the discussions of the use of these tool materials are in proximity to the objectives and suggestions relative to instruction in each grade.

Provisions for individual differences by modifying specifications. In formulating objectives and in selecting material aids to instruction, consideration should be given to provisions for individual differences. Two types of modifications may be made: those of a quantitative nature and those that are qualitative. However, the two are so intimately re-

lated that it is impossible in practice to make an uncompromising distinction between them. An example from the quantitative point of view is the formulation of a set of minimum essentials to which additions may be made for those who are capable of going beyond the bare minimum. From the qualitative point of view, some topics may be designated to be studied more thoroughly or in a somewhat different way by the more capable pupils. For instance, the minimum may be to know what the Federal Reserve Bank System is, but the more able pupils may go beyond this in comprehending some of the economic laws underlying such a system. One of the most helpful features of courses of study in assisting teachers with this qualitative aspect of specifications is the guidance which is given in selecting references suited to the varying abilities of pupils. Some indications should be made in the grade lists as to which reading materials are the more difficult and which are the simpler. Designations of this sort will enable the teacher to give the brighter pupils more difficult material and to assign simpler reading to the slower pupils.

However, the provisions made for individual differences must be dependent largely upon the policy of the school toward such provisions. Consequently, they may be elaborate or meagre, for mixed classes or for classes where pupils of different abilities are segregated, and so forth. Most provisions for individual differences, especially when there is no attempt at homogeneous grouping, must be made by adapting learning exercises and methods of instruction. This is discussed on the following page.

2. Suggestions relative to instruction. It was stated in preceding pages that the introductory section of the course of study should contain the discussion of general principles relative to class instruction and that the grade and subject divisions should contain the more specific suggestions which apply especially to a particular subject, such as lists of standardized tests available for use in American history. Three types of material of practical and direct use to teachers of the particular subjects should be presented: first, lists of effective and desirable learning exercises, such as projects and problems, with directions and occasionally cautions for carrying out some of the more complicated or difficult exercises; second, means of motivating pupil activity, such as lists of books that have been found to have a particularly strong appeal to pupils, or field trips of especial interest, with some suggestions as to the particular educational value of some of the suggested means; and third, means of evaluating pupil achievement, such as lists of standardized

tests available and difficulties which pupils have, with evaluating procedures to be used in discovering these difficulties. Sometimes complete tests which have been found to be especially effective may be given.

Adaptation of teaching procedures to individual differences.⁴²

Aside from purely administrative schemes, there are three outstanding types of provisions for individual differences which may be made: (1) modifications of objectives, (2) differentiations in material aids to instruction, and (3) modifications of teaching procedures. The modifications of objectives and differentiations in material aids to instruction should be indicated in the outline of specifications which is given in the introductory section and at the beginning of each grade section of the course of study. Modifications of teaching procedures should be discussed in the grade sections of the course of study.

It is probable that the most significant provisions that teachers make for individual differences are in modifications of their technique of instruction, rather than in objectives and material aids to instruction. Individual differences probably enter to a greater extent into the content subjects than into the drill subjects, not so much because of the nature of differences in native individual capacities but because educational objectives place emphasis upon maximum development of pupil ability in the content subjects as contrasted with acquisition of minimum essentials in drill subjects. For these and other more or less obvious reasons, it is highly important that courses of study in the social studies should make suggestions to teachers for modifying their technique. It is better to make these suggestions under the various grade and subject divisions of the course of study rather than to include all such suggestions under one heading in the introduction.

3. References for the teacher. The course of study in the social studies should have appended a few references that in the opinion of the course-of-study makers will be of most value to teachers of social studies. This list should not be an extended bibliography, but should contain selected references that will be of immediate value to the classroom teacher. Each reference should be annotated in order that the list will be readily usable.

Such a bibliography should include titles covering the more important phases of at least the following: (1) methods of teaching the social

⁴²Sec:

HERRIOTT, M. E. "Modifying technique of instruction for gifted children." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 18, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 41. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926. 20 p.

studies, (2) standards of attainment in the social studies, and (3) testing and remedial instruction in the social studies. In addition to references on these phases of instruction, a few educational journals that frequently contain articles on the teaching of social studies should be listed. Also, it is well to refer to a few of the better courses of study with brief comments on what is of most worth in each.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

SELECTED AND ANNOTATED

Introductory statement. The following references have been selected because of their pertinence to the work of those who make courses of study in the social studies. No attempt has been made to include all possible references; in fact, so many of the references included are of a summary nature and include excellent bibliographies that the list has been limited. The following divisions are made: first, general references on curriculum and course of study making; second, books and articles on methods of teaching; third, courses of study in the social studies; fourth, references on testing and standards of achievement in the social studies; and fifth, reports of investigations and miscellaneous references.

1. GENERAL REFERENCES ON CURRICULUM AND COURSE OF STUDY MAKING

BOBBITT, FRANKLIN. *How to Make a Curriculum*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924, p. 1-75.

This is a report of the work on revising the curriculum in Los Angeles which Dr. Bobbitt directed over a period of two years.

CALDWELL, OTIS W. "Types and principles of curricular development," *Teachers College Record*, 24:326-37, September, 1923.

Address delivered at meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association at Cleveland, February 28, 1923. Outlines the methods and results of two types of curricular investigations and states certain principles for use in reorganizing school subjects.

CHARTERS, W. W. *Curriculum Construction*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923, p. 3-168.

This portion of the book gives a good background theory of curriculum construction and presents Charters' point of view.

CLEMENT, JOHN ADDISON. *Curriculum Making in Secondary Schools*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1923. 534 p.

This is a collection of "some of the principles, problems and practices bearing upon the business of curriculum making in secondary education."

COUNTS, GEO. S. "The senior high school curriculum." *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 29. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1926. 160 p.

This is a report of a survey of curriculum practices in fifteen city senior high schools.

COX, PHILIP W. L. *Curriculum-Adjustment in the Secondary School*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1925. 306 p.

This is one of the best of the many new publications on the secondary-school curriculum. The author states the present situation, examines the scientific basis of the curriculum, and finally adduces principles for the guidance of curriculum adjustment.

GLASS, JAMES M. "Curriculum practices in the junior high school and grades five and six." *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 25. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1924. 181 p.

This is a report of a survey of curriculum practices in fourteen municipal school systems.

McMURRY, CHARLES A. *How to Organize the Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923. 358 p.

The curriculum is discussed in terms of projects, type studies, and large units of study. A suggested curriculum of large teaching units is given, covering the fields of geography, history, science, and literature.

MONROE, WALTER S. "Making a course of study." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 2, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 35. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925. 35 p.

This circular presents the best present-day ideas on general make-up of courses of study, the way to go about making a course of study, and the benefits to be derived from such work. A lengthy bibliography on curriculum and course-of-study making is included.

THRELKELD, A. L. "Curriculum revision: how a particular city may attack the problem," *Elementary School Journal*, 25:573-82, April, 1925.

This is a report of the method of attack used in Denver, Colorado.

WILSON, H. B. "The course of study in the work of the modern school." *Course of Study Monographs*, Introductory. Berkeley, California: Board of Education, 1921. 14 p.

"Introductory to all (Berkeley) Courses of Study presenting the general point of view which has guided the formulation of the detailed courses in all subjects for the various schools." (Introductory note.)

"Cardinal principles of secondary education." *U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin*, 1918, No. 35. Washington, 1918. 32 p.

This is a classic report with which all should be familiar.

"The elementary school curriculum." *Second Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1924. 269 p.

The elementary curriculum situation in the United States in 1923 is well described.

"Facts on the public school curriculum." *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. I, No. 5. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1923, p. 310-50.

This bulletin furnishes good source material on time allotments, statutory requirements, grade combinations of subjects, and other pertinent matters. A list of courses of study published in 1920 is valuable.

"Keeping pace with the advancing curriculum." Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. 3, Nos. 4 and 5. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1925, p. 107-92.

This bulletin makes an intensive survey of the curriculum advances that are being made in the United States. It is crowded with facts and helpful suggestions. A list of 889 courses of study published between January 1, 1923, and November, 1925, is very useful.

"The nation at work on the public school curriculum." Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1926. 520 p.

The major portion of this yearbook is made up of reports of national subject committees which discuss research studies that have been made and methods of procedure in curriculum revision. However, there are two introductory sections dealing with curriculum reconstruction in general.

"Research in constructing the elementary school curriculum." Third Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1925. 424 p.

This yearbook is devoted chiefly to the research studies that have been made in the various school subjects. There is a discussion in two introductory sections of a co-operative plan for the revision of the American elementary school curriculum and variations in curricula to meet community and individual needs.

2. METHODS OF TEACHING

ALMACK, JOHN C. Education for Citizenship. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924. 287 p.

The following phases of citizenship training are discussed: the civic basis of school organization, the teaching of civic materials, and integration of the school and the community.

BOURNE, HENRY E. The Teaching of History and Civics in the Elementary and the Secondary School. New York: Longmans, Green, and Company, 1902. 385 p.

This is a standard work that was revised in 1910. Somewhat out of date but still very helpful.

BRANOM, MENDEL E., and BRANOM, FRED K. The Teaching of Geography. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1921. 292 p.

The teaching of geography by the "project, or active, method" is well presented.

DAWSON, EDGAR. Teaching the Social Studies. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926.

The most recent book by an author who has given much thought to the subject. Not yet off the press but should be soon.

DODGE, RICHARD ELWOOD, and KIRCHWEY, CLARA BARBARA. *The Teaching of Geography in Elementary Schools*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1913. 248 p.

This is a book of practical considerations. The authors call attention to the double point of view, "that we are teaching *children* geography . . . and also that we are teaching *geography* to children."

HERRIOTT, M. E. "Modifying technique of instruction for gifted children." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol 23, No. 18, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 41. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926. 17 p.

Six modifications of learning exercises and three modifications in the directing of the doing of learning exercises are given as a result of considering the factors involved in modifying technique of instruction.

KLAPPER, PAUL. *The Teaching of History*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1926. 348 p.

This is one of the more recent books on the teaching of history in the elementary and junior-high schools. It also includes the teaching of civics. Part I consists of one chapter on the meaning of history; Part II contains nine chapters devoted to a discussion of how to attain the values of history; Part III is composed of three chapters in which the content of history through the ninth year is discussed; Part IV has four chapters on methods of teaching history; and Part V is devoted to the teaching of civics.

MONROE, WALTER S. "Types of learning required of pupils in the seventh and eighth grades and in the high school." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 19, No. 15, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 7. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1921. 16 p.

Twelve types of textbook study, or purposes for which pupils read, are distinguished. Teachers' opinions as to the prevalence in various school subjects and the relative difficulties of these various types of study are reported.

MONROE, WALTER S., and MOHLMAN, DORA KEEN. "Errors made by high-school students in one type of textbook study," *School Review*, 31:56-47, January, 1923.

This article presents an analysis of the causes of errors made by a group of high-school students in studying for "comprehension of material read plus memorization so that it can be reproduced." Remedial measures are suggested.

MONROE, WALTER S. "Projects and the project method." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 30, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 43. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926. 20 p.

This is a critical study of the project method which might well have been given the descriptive title: "The project vs. the assignment method—an evaluation."

ODELL, CHARLES W. "The assignment of lessons." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 7, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 38. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925. 20 p.

The following are discussed: function and importance of the assignment, when to make the assignment, planning the assignment, goals of the assignment, motivating pupils' study, statement of work to be covered, directing pupils in their study, and miscellaneous suggestions.

TRYON, ROLLA MILTON. Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1921. 294 p.

This is probably the best recent book on the teaching of history.

WEATHERLY, MRS. JOSEPHINE. "The correlation of history and literature," Teaching, No. 53, p. 12-16, October, 1920.

The major contribution of this article is an excellent list of literature books on historical subjects, such as Ebers, An Egyptian Princess.

WILGUS, A. CURTIS. "Maps and history instruction," The High School Quarterly, 12:245-50, July, 1924.

Enumerates types of maps and ways of having them made by pupils. Some of their uses are indicated.

WOELLNER, FREDERIC P. Education for Citizenship in a Democracy. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923. 252 p.

The present-day point of view toward civics, sociology, economics, ethics, and Americanization is well presented here.

Committee of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. "Standardizing library work and library equipment for history in secondary schools," School Review, 29:135-50, February, 1921.

Lists of books that have been found valuable for intensive and extensive reading in American and European history are given and recommendations made.

3. COURSES OF STUDY

PIERCE, BESSIE L. "Courses in the social studies for junior high schools."

College of Education Series, No. 1. University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, No. 97. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1923.

Although the writer has not seen this bulletin it should be similar to the ones described just below.

PIERCE, BESSIE LOUISE, and SHARPE, ELOISE. "Courses in the social studies for senior high schools." College of Education Series, Nos. 8, 9, and 10. University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, Nos. 118, 119, and 120. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1925. 102, 174, and 122 p.

These bulletins are not courses of study, properly speaking, but are syllabi worked out in great detail. These syllabi are for the social studies in the University High School of the University of Iowa. The courses are organized on the cycle plan.

"The course in history," Francis W. Parker School Studies in Education, Social Science Series, Vol. 7. Chicago: Francis W. Parker School, 1923. 196 p.

The point of view of the Francis W. Parker School is admirably presented with many illustrations of the work done. The course in history is discussed from the first grade through the high school.

The following references are not individually annotated because it can hardly be said that any one of them makes an outstanding contribution. However, all are representative of the better practices in course-of-study making. The usual bibliographical form is not used, the courses of study for each school system being grouped together.

Baltimore, Maryland: Warwick and York.

"Course of study, public schools, Baltimore County, Maryland, Grades I-VIII," 1921, p. 158-88, 189-216, 412-72, 473-576, 577-92.

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"Geography, course of study for grades four, five, and six," 1924. 74 p.

"History, course of study for grades four, five, and six," 1924. 103 p.

"The social studies, course of study for senior and junior high schools," 1925. 577 p.

Berkeley, California: Board of Education.

"English, history, science, mathematics, foreign languages—course of study monographs for Junior High Schools, Number 1, 1922. 132 p.

Cleveland, Ohio: Board of Education.

"Course of study in geography—grades three to six, inclusive," 1925. 240 p.

Lawrence, Kansas: Board of Education.

"Geography, course of study, elementary schools." (No date given.) 66 p. (Mimeographed.)

"Social study syllabus, secondary schools," 1924. (Not paged consecutively.) (Mimeographed.)

Los Angeles, California: Board of Education.

"Course of study, fifth and sixth grades," 1924. 335 p.

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Trenton, New Jersey: Board of Education.

"History, elementary course of study," 1923. 139 p.

"Civics, elementary course of study," 1922. 89 p.

"Geography, report of committee on elementary course of study," 1924. 28 p.

"Geography, elementary course of study," 1922. 94 p.

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"Early European history, secondary course of study, grade ten," 1924. 98 p.

"Modern European history, secondary course of study, grade eleven," 1924. 65 p.

"Geography and science, secondary course of study," 1923. 100 p.

4. TESTING AND STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENT

DOHERTY, MARGARET, and MACLATCHY, JOSEPHINE. "Bibliography of educational and psychological tests and measurements." U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1923, No. 55. Washington, 1924. 233 p.

This bibliography gives not only a list of the tests but a rather complete list of references that discuss the particular tests, the use of tests in general, and the uses of tests according to types of schools.

MONROE, WALTER SCOTT, DeVoss, JAMES CLARENCE, and KELLY, FREDERICK JAMES. Educational Tests and Measurements. (Revised Edition). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924, p. 272-96, 417-30, 469-86.

The structure, uses and limitations of most of the standardized tests in geography and history are discussed in the sections referred to. The general theory of testing is discussed and practical suggestions made. An excellent bibliography on testing in geography and history is given on pages 294-96.

O DELL, CHARLES W. "Educational tests for use in elementary schools, revised." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 22, No. 16, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 33. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1924. 22 p.

An annotated bibliography of tests that are now available. "Tests that are known to be distinctly unsatisfactory are omitted." Norms are available for most of the tests listed. The bibliography is preceded by a brief discussion of the characteristics and use of tests.

O DELL, CHARLES W. "Educational tests for use in high schools, revised." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 22, No. 37, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 34. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925. 19 p.

This circular does much the same for high schools that the preceding circular does for elementary schools.

O DELL, CHARLES W. "Objective measurement of information." University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 36, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 44. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926. 27 p.

This circular presents a brief discussion of the so-called "new examination" and its use. Examples of fifteen types and numerous sub-types of the "new examination" are given along with a brief discussion of the use of each.

Bureau of Cooperative Research, Indiana University (Compiled by).

"First revision of bibliography of educational measurements." Bulletin of the School of Education, Vol. 1, No. 5. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, 1925. 147 p.

"This bibliography is compiled for the double purpose of listing all efforts, so far as they have come to our attention, which have been made in the United States to develop achievement tests, and of giving a brief description of each test, including in the description not only an analysis of the test and its purpose, but also available infor-

mation concerning the range of the test, administration cost of the test in money and in time, information as to the time of year in which it was standardized, the publisher of the tests, and the date of publication." (From foreword of first edition.)

5. REPORTS OF INVESTIGATIONS AND MISCELLANEOUS REFERENCES

BARNARD, J. LYNN, CARRIER, F. W., DUNN, ARTHUR WILLIAM, and KINGSLEY, CLARENCE D. "The teaching of community civics." U. S. Bureau of Educational Bulletin, 1915, No. 23. Washington, 1915. 55 p.

This bulletin laid the foundation for much of what is being done at present in community civics. It should be read by those who wish to understand the developments since 1915.

DAWSON, EDGAR (Edited by). "Outlines of Responsible Government." New York: The National Municipal League.

This is only one of several publications dealing with governmental subjects. They are intended to enlist the cooperation of teachers in teaching the principles of organization which have passed beyond the stage of hypothesis.

DAWSON, EDGAR. "The social studies in civic education." U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1923, No. 23. Washington, 1923. 16 p.

A good résumé of the present situation of the social studies.

DUNN, ARTHUR WILLIAM (Compiled by). "The social studies in secondary education." U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 28. Washington, 1916. 63 p.

This is the report of the committee on social studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association.

GAMBRILL, J. MONTGOMERY. "Experimental curriculum-making in the social studies." *The Historical Outlook*, 14:384-406, December, 1923; 15:37-55, January, 1924.

This is a report of an investigation of several experimental curricula in the social studies. The salient points of each are well discussed.

GOOD, CARTER V. "An experimental study of the merits of extensive and intensive reading in the social sciences," *School and Society*, 22:758-60, December 12, 1925.

Methods of and conclusions from an experiment at the University of Chicago are reported.

HUGHES, R. O. "Recent tests in the social studies," *The Historical Outlook*, 14:373-76, December, 1923.

The compiler endeavored to include every textbook for general use in the social studies (history, civics, sociology, and economics) in the junior and senior high school which was published between 1916 and 1923. Approximately 100 titles are listed. The school grade for which each text is intended is given along with a brief annotation.

KIMBALL, REGINALD STEVENS. "A selected bibliography of works helpful in teaching the constitution of the United States," *The Historical Outlook*, 16:211-16, May, 1925.

The list includes approximately 200 briefly annotated titles classified as follows:

A—For teachers' reference

B—Source material

C—Popular treatments

D—1. Advanced texts

2. Secondary texts

3. Elementary texts

E—For pupils' reference

F—Constitutional law

MONROE, WALTER S. "Teachers' Objectives." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 39, Bureau of Educational Research Circular No. 45. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926. 28 p.

This is a thoughtful discussion of the objectives of education, particularly of the immediate objectives of instruction. There is a succinct discussion of the lack of harmony between the objectives expressed by teachers and the objectives implied by the learning exercises which they have pupils do.

MONROE, WALTER S., and FOSTER, I. O. "The status of the social sciences in the high schools of the North Central Association." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 20, No. 18, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 13. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1923. 38 p.

The title is sufficiently descriptive.

MONROE, WALTER S., and HERRIOTT, M. E. "Objectives of United States history in grades seven and eight." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 3, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 33. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1926. 68 pp.

The dates, events, personages, and miscellaneous facts in United States history which the elementary teachers of Champaign and Piatt counties, Illinois, think pupils should know on completion of the eighth grade are compared with some current practices and the results of other investigations. A study of thought questions in United States history is reported.

MONROE, WALTER S., and JOHNSTON, NELL BOMAR. "Reporting educational research." *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 22, No. 38, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 25. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925. 63 p.

Most of the principles relating to the reporting of educational research are applicable to the writing of a course of study. This bulletin will be of real assistance to the one who does the actual writing of a course of study.

ROBINSON, JAMES HARVEY. *The New History*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1912. 266 p.

This is a collection of essays illustrating a modern tendency in point of view toward history and history teaching. It is a classic of such literature.

SHIELDS, ALBERT. "The social studies in development," *Teachers College Record*, 23:126-45, March, 1922.

An excellent résumé of the development of the teaching of the social studies in the elementary and secondary school, with special emphasis on the reports of committees and tendencies evidenced in them.

SHRYOCK, RICHARD H. "An analytical and descriptive guide to the materials in the History Teacher's Magazine and the Historical Outlook, Vol. I to XVI, 1909-1925," *The Historical Outlook*, 16: 355-94, December, 1925.

For those who have access to *The Historical Outlook* this is an excellent guide.

Department of History, University of Iowa (Compiled and annotated by). "Great Charters of Americanism." *University of Iowa Extension Division Bulletin* No. 60. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1920. 120 p.

Contains ten documents, from the Mayflower Pact to the Covenant of the League of Nations, illustrating the progress of the American people toward greater liberty and self-government. Valuable bibliographies included.

"Books for historical reading in schools," *The Historical Outlook*, 15: 306-13, October, 1924.

This is a list for outside reading and includes recent books not yet tested and novels as well as ten best books in each of the following fields of history: Ancient, European, English, and American.

"List of references on education for citizenship." U. S. Bureau of Education, Library Leaflet No. 30. Washington, 1925. 16 p.

The list includes references on training for citizenship in general as well as references on the problems of government. Both book and periodical references are given.

"New materials of instruction." *Nineteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1920, p. 69-82, 156-74.

The chapters referred to have the following titles: "A book of local history," "Lessons in local history and geography," and "Community life."

"Studies in Secondary Education, I." *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 24. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1923, p. 88-115.

The pages referred to are three divisions of the monograph as follows: Hill, Howard Copeland—"A two-year sequence in high-school history"; Barnard, Arthur Fairchild—"Survey of Civilization"; and Hill, Howard Copeland—"A course in modern history."

"Studies in Secondary Education, II." *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 26. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1925, p. 137-59.

The pages referred to are two divisions of the monograph written by Howard C. Hill and Mildred Janovsky Wiese, respectively, entitled, "Experiments with advanced courses in social science for high-school seniors," and "The worker in modern society: a new social science course."

"The social studies in the elementary and secondary school." Twenty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1923. 343 p.

This is the most comprehensive collection of material relative to the organization of courses and curriculum making in the social studies that has been made.

"The teaching of citizenship in the elementary school." Maryland School Bulletin, Vol. 8, No. 1. Baltimore, Maryland: State Department of Education, 1926. 272 p.

This bulletin is divided into two parts. Part One is a somewhat theoretical discussion of the nature of good citizenship and the training of citizens in school. Part Two is made up of concrete examples of civic training submitted by teachers of Maryland.

The Chronicles of America Photoplays. New Haven: Yale University Press Film Service. 64 p.

A description of the Chronicles of America Photoplays for school use. It is free for the asking.

On minimum essentials: Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I; Sixteenth Yearbook, Part I; Seventeenth Yearbook, Part I; and Eighteenth Yearbook, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1915, 1917, 1918, 1919.

These are reports on economy of time and minimum essentials in elementary school subjects. The discussions furnish a background for such provisions in courses of study. Some concrete material and suggestions are also provided.

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